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A NEW TALE OF TWO CITIES.

In the list of occupations of the people given in the United Sates census one is omitted for obvious reasons. It is disreputable, and it is confined to women. It would be more polite not to name it here.

The evils which grow out of it are admitted, and are of two sorts, moral and physical. Some persons lay greater stress on the former, and others on the latter. All depends upon their point of view.

In the only account which we have of the creation we are informed that "God created man in his own image, in the image of God created he him; male and female created he them. And God blessed them, and God said unto them: Be faithful, and multiply, and replenish the earth, and subdue it." Pretty much all the serious trouble in life may be traced to this root, the creation of two sexes. Yet we fancy that there are few persons who would have had man created otherwise.

But every thing in the world has its counterpart, which bears a certain resemblance to the genuine original of which it is a spurious imitation, and the institution of marriage is no exception to the rule. Pseudo-marriage bears the same relation to the real article that cheat does to wheat. It is an attempt to secure the benefits of the law of sex, without meeting its obligations. It is, in essence, a lie in action, and no permanent, substantial good was ever known to come from a lie. In all ages, therefore, it has been the plague and puzzle of legislators and statesmen, as well as of moralists.

Some years ago, in the city of St. Louis, there was a chief of police, an honest man, newly chosen for the position, who entered upon the discharge of his duties with an earnest purpose to do what he might to reduce the volume of crime and immorality in the community. The writer of this article chanced to meet him in his office one day, and the new chief confided to me his anxiety about the corruption due to the presence of a very large number of women, whose daily life was a shame to their womanhood, as well as to the manhood of the men who associated with them. To tell the truth, it was the physical, rather than the moral, aspect of the case which seemed to affect him most. Some members of the medical profession, with whom he was intimate, had made to him certain surprising and shocking revelations. To satisfy himself of the truth of their representations he had done a curious thing. He had given orders to the police to arrest, without warrant, on the street one night, every known male agent of the business in which these women were engaged, and bring them down to the court-room. The astonished victims of this order found themselves unable to effect an exit from the room without first demolishing two stalwart policemen at the door. They awaited the issue of events. When a hundred or more of them had been collected together, the chief of police entered in company with the health officer, and they proceeded to make a physical inspection of the ravages of a nameless disease. That settled it in the chief's mind. The proof of a real necessity for some remedial or preventive action on his part was complete. The next step was to find and apply the remedy. Dr. Sanger's book was recommended to him. He read it. In that book a detailed description is given of European methods and a glowing account of the success which has followed their adoption. The chief believed it. In other words, he swallowed the devil's bait. On the afternoon to which I refer, he informed me that it was his intention to introduce a system of registration (which is virtually a license system) into St. Louis, and he gave me his reasons. He had already tried another plan—that of raiding houses—and had discovered that it is easy enough to break up houses by persistently repeating police raids at short intervals: any novice or ignoramus can clean any city in a very short time of every known palace or hovel in which sin holds an open court. But he had, after congratulating himself on the service which he was rendering the public, discovered another fact, namely, that the occupants of the raided houses had not left the city, nor ceased to ply their arts and their vocation. They were scattered, as one might scatter a boil before it comes to a head, and diffuse the poison contained in it throughout one's entire system. Where they were—many of them in private families, ostensibly as servants, with daily access to the sons and daughters of reputable citizens, innocent of wrong—they were doing tenfold more injury than before. His first plan had failed. Now he meant to try another. As usual, the pendulum swung as far on this side of the perpendicular as it had swung on that. I wasted several hours in a vain attempt to open his mind to the other side of the question, and to convince him that he was wrong. But Wilful would have his way.

The result in St. Louis is known to every one who is interested in this question. It is a matter of history. The town was thrown into a convulsion. Every newspaper, every pulpit, every man, woman, and child in the city argued it on every side. It became a public scandal, and the legislature of the State finally intervened, and prohibited the further continuance of the system. It has never been revived.

But that is neither here nor there. The purpose of this article is not yet apparent perhaps to the reader. Let him now accompany me, in thought, from the city on the river to the city of the lake—Chicago, nearly three hundred miles away. The action of the St. Louis chief grated on the sensibilities of the chief of police of Chicago, and awakened in his breast a feeling that for once that sleepy old town had stolen a march on the livest, most wide-awake, most miraculously active and progressive city of the century. The tortoise had distanced the hare. While he was in this state of mind, it happened that I paid him also a visit, and was the recipient of his confidences. He, too, was thinking of adopting a system of registration for Chicago. This was, of course, before the collapse of the St. Louis experiment.

The futile issue of my argument with the St. Louis chief had taught me wisdom. I decided in an instant that I would argue no more. Instead of attempting to carry the enemy's works by assault, I would use strategy, flank him, if possible, and enter from the rear. So I said:

"Before you take any steps in that direction, would it not be well to ascertain, if possible, what the probable effect well be?"

To this he assented; but seemed not to have a clear idea of any practicable mode of judging. I ventured a suggestion.

"The women who have charge of the business ought to know. Why not ask their advice? Take the mind of the street."

He thought the idea not a bad one; but protested that he did not know how to arrive at the mind of the street.

Seeing failure staring me again in the face, I became desperate, and replied:

"I will take it for you. Detail one of your most trusted and worthy captains to accompany me. I will ask the health officer of the city to go with us, and we will make you a report."

The arrangements were easily made, and that evening, a little before midnight, we started on our tour of investigation. We began with houses of a low grade, and gradually rose in the scale of social respectability, winding up at the largest and best in the city. It is needless to say that we obtained little information of any value to us. A duller, more stupid evening can scarcely be imagined, devoid of incident, and unrelieved by a single flash of wit or humor worthy of record even in the pages of a comic newspaper. One exception, however, must be made to this remark. At one place we met a woman who claimed to be kept by a business-man, from whom she was anticipating a visit that night, and she had been making her toilet to receive him. The manner in which she said that a woman in her position must be "immaculate" was so affected and absurd that we all laughed out. She gave us a very amusing account of a visit which she and another woman of her own class had made to one of the charitable institutions of Chicago, and how they had attended a meeting of the lady managers, arriving late, and passing themselves off as ladies from New York, interested in a similar enterprise there, and anxious to learn from their Western sisters. To avoid embarrassing questions they left before the close of the meeting, offering as an excuse the necessity of taking a train, and begging to leave a small contribution behind them in aid of the work.

But when we arrived at the house of Madame ——, the last on our list, feeling somewhat discouraged, we found her on the steps outside, bonneted, and about to leave for her own home. She had three houses, one of which she occupied as a private residence, in which she was trying to raise a family respectably; one was a boarding-house for business purposes, and the third was a quarantine hospital exclusively devoted to the use of her boarders. Seeing us, and recognizing the official star on the captain's breast, she turned back, put the latch-key in the door, invited us in, and lighted the gas in the parlor. We found her a very able woman, who would have adorned any station in life by her talents, had she not taken the first false step.

"Well, gentlemen, what can I do for you?"

"We called, Mrs. ——, to ask of you a little advice; we want your opinion on an important matter, if you will give it."

"I will give it with pleasure. To what do you refer?"

"Well, you know that in St. Louis a system of registration of women has been adopted and is in operation."

"Yes, I have seen something of it in the newspapers."

"And the chief of police in Chicago is considering the propriety of introducing the same system here. But before doing so he thought that it might be well to get the opinion of keepers of houses on the question, and find out, if possible, how it would be likely to work in practice. So he asked us to act as a sort of committee of investigation for him, and visit some of the houses, which we have been doing to-night. But we must say that we have not learned much, and unless you can help us our report will, we fear, be very incomplete and unsatisfactory."

"I am not surprised at your learning very little from boarding-house keepers. They have, as a rule, no ideas, and not much intelligence. But what do you want to know? I will answer any question as well and truly as I know how."

"Do you think, then, that a system of registration would be a good thing or a bad thing?"

"I think it would be a good thing."

"Why?"

"Well, you know that the ranks of our profession are filled from girls on the street, and they are mostly corrupted by street-walkers. If a system of registration were adopted, street-walking would be suppressed, and of course fewer girls would be corrupted."

"Possibly that may be true. But that is not what we meant. We intended to ask you whether, in your opinion, registration would diminish the ravages of disease or not."

"I don't think it would."

"Why not?"

"Why, in the first place, there is and can be no thoroughly effectual inspection of women. My house has the reputation of being one of the best-managed houses of its kind in Chicago, and I try to merit it. Of course we endeavor to give our customers every possible guaranty of immunity against contagion. I have a staff of physicians in my employ, who make regular weekly inspections of my girls, and oftener if necessary. The moment that I know a girl to be infected, she is quarantined—I have a private hospital for that purpose—and she is not allowed to return here until she has a medical certificate of her entire freedom from disease. But the first man she meets may infect her, and she may give it to a half-dozen or more before any one can find it out; she does not know it herself. No! we cannot be held responsible for what we cannot help."

"Then do you want us to understand that registration would be of no benefit, in this particular?"

"Not any, so far as the better grade of houses are concerned. They do all that any health board could do, and more. Oh, it might be of use for the low places; you have no idea of the filth and degradation in them. Yes, I think it would be a good thing to have them inspected. But then, the only effective inspection is inspection of the men, and of course that is impracticable. It would take a physician for every house, and he would have to stay there all the time."

"We are much obliged to you, Mrs. ——. Now, one question further, if you please. What effect do you think the adoption of this system would have on your business? Would it increase or diminish it?"

"Why it would be a good thing for the business; it would increase it, of course."

"How so?"

"Well, it would put a stop to raiding. I will tell you what keeps men away from houses. It is not the fear of disease—that don't count for much with them—but it is the fear of being caught up by the police and having their names come out in the newspaper or some way. Of course they don't give their real names in the police court. But there is the chance of somebody being there who knows them; and it hurts a man in business to have it get out that he has been hauled up in the police court. Now, if the police were to register women, and make them go to houses, they could n't raid the houses; so more men would come, and it would be a good thing for the madams."

We had learned all that we required to know, and thanking her for her polite treatment, we retired. It was very obvious that, if registration is ineffectual as a means of restraining the spread of contagion, and effective in increasing and developing the aggregate amount of licentiousness in the community, the balance of the argument is against it, even from the standpoint of the physician. The benefits which would flow from having all women of the town in houses, under discipline, rather than on the streets, are not sufficient to justify so radical a change of policy. Prostitution is now an offence at law; under the new system it could not be so regarded or treated. Its growth would be as certain and inevitable as that of a mushroom under favorable conditions.

We made our report, and that was the end of registration in Chicago.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

The second number of the *Bulletin* of the International Prison Commission contains much information of interest and value, from which we cull a few items for American students.

France.

The full text is given of a decree by President Grévy for the regulation of prisons in which prisoners are confined in association for short terms only. This decree contains one hundred sections in six chapters. The first chapter relates to the qualifications and duties of prison officials; the second, to the discipline and internal police of the prisons; the third, to the rules for the government of prisoners and the work to be done by them; the fourth, to hygienic and sanitary regulations; the fifth, to education in prison; and the sixth contains sundry miscellaneous provisions.

Russia.

The first attempt to organize prison labor in Russia was by Peter the Great, who employed prisoners in the galleys to construct ports and fortresses, and to develop mines. His motive was purely one of finance. The Empress Catherine II. recognized the relation of labor to the reformation of convicts, and the houses of correction (Rahotchié domà) founded by her in 1783, were the prototypes of our modern penitentiaries. Under Nicholas I., a complete penal system was devised; but the wars in which he took part entailed so much expense, that the public treasury could not meet the cost of construction of the necessary penal establishments. To meet the situation, the number of the exiles to Siberia was augmented. It was, however, impossible to provide sufficient labor for those exiles. When Alexander II. ascended the throne, the system was in confusion. The abolition of corporal punishments, by the ukase of April, 1863, rendered it essential to construct additional prisons. But some of those which were built did not correspond to the requirements of the penal code. The prisons soon became so overcrowded, that labor had to be abandoned in some of the existing workshops. An effort was made, with partial success, to organize industries outside of the prison walls, but the number of guards was so limited, that the services of troops were called in requisition to supply their place—an expedient practicable only in certain localities and to a limited extent. In the year 1879 the administration grappled seriously with the whole question. The result was the elaboration of a law to regulate labor in prisons, which was approved by the emperor in January, 1886. By this law prisoners are divided into two groups, those for whom labor is compulsory, and those for whom it is voluntary. The first group includes all convicted criminals, and the second those who are not. Of the former group, those not convicted of certain offences against property have the privilege of selecting from among the industries pursued in a prison the one which they prefer. The number of hours of labor a day is prescribed, and the days on which no work shall be done. Each prisoner, even those engaged in prison duties, is entitled to his *peculium* or share of the profits of his labor, a portion of which may be expended by him while in prison. The administrative officers of the prison also enjoy a personal interest in the profits.

The number of prisons of all grades in Russia (including Asiatic Russia, but not the island of Sakhalin), in 1885, was 871. On the 1st of January of that year the number of prisoners in these establishments was 94,488, of whom 22,442 were awaiting trial, 56,117 undergoing a term of imprisonment, 14,205 condemned to transportation, and 4,889 *in transitu;* besides 426 detained by order of the administration or of the police, and 3,439 persons who were of their own accord accompanying the exiles to their destination. The total number of inmates of Russian prisons, during the year 1885, was 821,994. That year 10,230 exiles arrived in Siberia. In the island of Sakhalin there were, at the beginning of the year, 3,392, and at its close 4,229 convicts sentenced to hard labor.

Grand Duchy of Baden.

The penal code of the German empire forbids the criminal prosecution of children under twelve years of age: children of that age may, however, be committed to a school or a house of correction. Between the ages of twelve and eighteen those who, on trial, are found to have acted without discernment sufficient to comprehend the culpability of their actions, must be acquitted; they may be remanded to their families or committed as above. If convicted of any offence, their punishment is lighter than that of adult criminals; for a simple misdemeanor, it is only a reprimand; they cannot be deprived of civil rights, nor subjected to police surveillance.

By an addition made to the code in 1876, authority is conferred upon the several States composing the empire to take proper measures for the oversight and reformation of children under eighteen years old, and to confine them in juvenile reformatories, if necessary.

The Grand Duchy has only recently enacted a law on this subject. Children who have not completed their sixteenth year, if their morals are in peril, may be placed either in a suitable family, in a public reform school, or in a private educational institution, in either of the two following cases: (1) if their parents or guardians neglect their education or are incompetent to rear them properly; (2) if they are unmanageable by their parents or guardians, and likely to go to ruin, without the intervention of the State on their behalf. A trial takes place in court, and the order of the court is executed by the prefect. For each child placed in a private family the prefect names a "curator," whose business it is to see that the child is properly treated in all respects. No prison, almshouse, or hospital can be utilized as an institution of correctional education. The conditional liberation of children committed is provided for; and in no case can the commitment be for a longer term than until the age of twenty; the court or the prefect may grant an absolute discharge at any time. Minute directions are given for the accomplishment of every detail of this system. The rights of the parent are carefully guarded. The government prefers commitment to private families, but it is difficult to find such as are really equal to the task which they assume. There are no public reform schools in Baden, and the government is satisfied with the care and training given in private establishments.

Belgium.

The king of Belgium, Leopold II., on the 5th of April, 1887, issued a decree on the subject of prison labor, regulating its method and the disposition of the income derived from it, part of which goes to the prisoner himself. The system pursued is mainly that of public account; contract labor and the piece-price plan, (of which the latter is regarded as a sub-variety of contract labor) are authorized in case sufficient employment on public account cannot be furnished.

Switzerland.

The temperance question has made its way into the Alps. The Federal Council, in a message to the Assembly, pointed out that the consumption of spirituous liquors is rapidly increasing in Switzerland; that the effects of drunkenness are ruinous to the health; that intemperance impairs the strength of the army, contributes a large quota to the insane asylums, is a burden upon the poor fund, shortens the lives of its victims, leads in many instances to suicide, and injures the moral character of its victims; above all, it is a hereditary complaint. On the 22d of October, 1885, the people adopted, by a vote of 223,498 to 151,489, an amendment to the Federal Constitution, authorizing legislation for its re-

pression. On the 23d of December, 1886, the Assembly passed an act relating to spirituous liquors, which was submitted to a popular vote and was approved at an election held on the 15th of May, 1887, by a majority of 128,626, or nearly two thirds. This act regulates the manufacture, sale, importation, and exportation of ardent spirits; it is in no sense a prohibitory act. The sale in packages of not less than forty litres is free; the cantons may license the sale at retail; no license is necessary for distillers who do not manufacture more than 40 litres in any one year, and sell the same in lots of not less than 5 litres. The right to manufacture and import spirituous liquors is vested exclusively in the Confederation. The Confederation agrees to take one fourth of the total amount handled from domestic distillers, in lots of from 150 to 1,000 hectolitres of absolute alcohol, proposals to be advertised for, and not more than one lot taken from any one manufacturer. It will sell in quantities of not less than 150 litres, for cash only. It will authorize private importation of spirits, subject to a tax of 80 francs per metric quintal, without regard to proof. The net profits will be divided among the cantons according to population, and one tenth of the same must be used in the fight against alcoholism. Distillers are to receive indemnity from the Confederation for the value of the property taken by it.

This law would hardly satisfy the Woman's Christian Temperance Union of the United States. More than that, there is not a politician in America who would offer it in any legislative body with the expectation of its receiving more than a handful of votes, if it should even receive any. Yet its passage is hailed as a great triumph, and the influence of the church, the school, and the home is invoked to support it, in order that the 15th of May, 1887, may become memorable in the annals of Switzerland.

CONDITIONAL LIBERATION IN FRANCE.

The following is the text of the law of the 14th August, 1885, passed by the French Senate and Chamber of Deputies, at the instance of Senator Béranger :

TITLE I.—*Conditional Discharge from Prison.*

Art 1.—With a view to the reformation of convicts and their preparation for conditional discharge from prison, there is hereby instituted, for the prisons of France and Algeria, a system of discipline founded upon a daily report of their work and conduct.

Art. 2.—Convicted prisoners sentenced to imprisonment for a term less than six months may, at the expiration of three months, and all others may, at the expiration of one half of their term of sentence, be conditionally set at liberty, provided they shall have complied with the rules adopted for their government, in accordance with Article 1. But the duration of imprisonment of recidivists, under the penal code, articles 56–58, or under the law of the 27th May, 1885, shall be six months, if sentenced for less than nine months; otherwise it shall be two thirds of the term of sentence. The ticket-of-leave granted to any convict may be revoked, in case of habitual or public misconduct, duly proved, or of violation of any of the special conditions therein expressed. If not revoked before the expiration of the term of sentence, the liberation of the convict thereupon becomes absolute. Where the penalty of imprisonment pronounced upon a convict who is conditionally discharged should have been followed by transportation, the latter portion of the sentence may be set aside, and the convict will be allowed to remain in France, if his ticket-of-leave is not revoked, as aforesaid. In the case mentioned, the right of revocation will come to an end at the expiration of ten years from the date of termination of the sentence of imprisonment originally pronounced.

Art. 3.—Tickets-of-leave and orders of revocation must be issued by the Minister of the Interior. Tickets-of-leave will be issued only on the recommendation of the prefect, the prison warden, the board of prison directors, and the prosecuting attorney of the court in which the prisoner was convicted. They will be revoked only on the recommendation of the prefect and prosecuting attorney of the district in which the prisoner resides.

Art 4.—Any conditionally discharged prisoner may be provisionally arrested by the administrative or judicial authority of any place where he may be, but notice of such arrest must be immediately given to the Minister of the Interior. The Minister will revoke the prisoner's ticket-of-leave, if necessary, and the effect of such revocation will date from the day of his arrest.

Art. 5.—Reimprisonment takes place [under a revocation of ticket-of leave] for the entire period of the sentence unexpired at the date of discharge. But if the provisional arrest is continued, the time of such arrest is counted as execution of sentence.

Art. 6.—The administrative department of the government will regulate the forms of tickets-of-leave, the conditions on which they are granted, and the methods of surveillance of conditionally discharged prisoners. The administration may entrust such surveillance, in special cases and under special regulations, to prisoners' aid associations.

Titles II. and III. relate to "patronage," or the work of prisoners' aid societies, and to the rehabilitation of convicts. We do not quote them. The government grants to such societies an annual subvention, proportioned to the number of prisoners aided by them, at the rate of 50 *centimes* (10 cents) a day each, during a period equal to the unexpired term of sentence, not to exceed in any individual case 100 francs = 20 dollars. The rehabilitation of a convict can not take place until after from three to five years have elapsed subsequent to his discharge, nor (unless exempted from this condition by the court) until he has defrayed the costs of his conviction and made restitution, in whole or in part, to the injured party.

THE ITALIAN SCALE OF PENALTIES FOR CRIME.

In the project of a penal code prepared by the Minister of Justice for the kingdom of Italy, offences against the criminal law are divided into three grades—crimes, misdemeanors and violations of police regulations. Punishments are of three sorts, corresponding to this analysis.

The following is the scale of penalties.

(1) Under "criminal" punishments :

Ergastolo, or solitary imprisonment for life, with compulsory labor.

Reclusione, or imprisonment at hard labor, in association, on the Auburn plan.

Relegazione, which is the same as *reclusione*, except that labor is voluntary on the part of the prisoner, and not enforced.

These two forms of imprisonment have a minimum term of 6 years, and a maximum of 25 years, in four degrees.

Interdizione dai publici uffici, or deprivation of public office.

(2) Under "correctional" punishments :

Prigionia, a milder form of *seclusione*, with a shorter term of from 6 days to 5 years, in four degrees.

Detenzione, which has the same term as *prigionia*, but is simple imprisonment without labor.

Confino, the exact nature of which we are unable to explain.

Esilio locale, or local exile.

The three last-named penalties have a minimum term of 1 month and a maximum of 5 years, in four degrees.

Multa, or a fine of from 50 to 10,000 lire ($10 to $2,000), in six degrees.

Sospensione dai publici uffici, or suspension from public office, for from 1 month to 5 years, in four degrees.

(3) Under "police" punishments :

Arresto, simple imprisonment for not less than 1 nor more than 5 days.

Ammenda, a trifling fine.

Sospensione dall' exercizio di una ufficio di un professione, or suspension from the exercise of an office or a profession, for from 2 weeks to 6 months, in four degrees.

The Amelioration of Penalties.

Prisoners for life may be released from solitary confinement, on evidence of reformation given by them, at the expiration of 10 years.

Those who are condemned to reclusion or relegation, if they conduct themselves well for one half the term of sentence, may then be transferred to an agricultural colony, or permitted to work in the open air, but not in association with free labor outside.

Those who are condemned to *reclusione* or *relegazione* may, on proof of reformation, be conditionally discharged at the expiration of three fourths of the term of sentence. Those who are condemned to *prigionia* or *detenzione* may be similarly released at the expiration of two thirds of the term of sentence.

Conditional liberation is never granted to prisoners convicted of certain specified offences; nor to certain categories of recidivists; nor to recidivists in general who are convicted of the same crime a second time; nor to foreigners.

Prisoners at large on ticket-of-leave are subjected to police surveillance, and forfeit their liberty if guilty of bad conduct, or on violation of any of the conditions of their discharge.

For the above statements M. Beltrani-Scalia must have the entire credit. We find them in an article contributed by him to the *Bulletin de la Commission Penitentiaire Internationale.*

We are impressed with the complicated and cumbrous character of the entire scheme. The refinements included in it are too subtle to be practical; and no such exact apportionment of penalty to guilt as is here contemplated is possible.

One merit of the so-called "indeterminate sentence" is that it cuts away, at a single stroke, all this mass of metaphysical drift-wood. Conditional liberation without the indeterminate sentence is a half-way measure. It appears to be simpler and better in dealing with criminals to say to them: "You are wrong, and you must be set right. If you *can* be set right, well and good. If not, you will be placed permanently where you can do no harm except to yourself. Here is the prison. The discipline is intended and designed to enable you to gain the control of your criminal propensities. Yield to it. Coöperate with those who have the charge of you in the effort for your reclamation. If at any time there seems to be a probability of your doing well outside of prison walls, you shall have a trial. Your future depends upon yourself. The officers of the prison are your friends. But if you prove incorrigible, the law will relentlessly consign you to imprisonment for life." The tendency of American thought on the prison question is manifestly in the direction here indicated. But what an impediment to progress we should find such a "scale of penalties" as that of M. Tajani!

LEAVES FROM A WAR DIARY.

(*Continued.*)

November.—At the request of the provost-marshal, I have drafted a plan for the relief of the suffering among the poor at this post, and have submitted it to the department commander, who disapproves of their removal, but will give me authority to draw upon the fund for the relief of soldiers' families.

I have been to R—— by stage, and returned. I started at three o'clock in the morning, without breakfast, and without having been to the fire, though the air was keen and frosty. We rode sixteen miles before breakfasting. A soldier from the hospital was one of the passengers, and the motion of the coach, together with the closeness of the air inside, nauseated him. The rest of the company consisted of a soldier's wife—a coarse young woman, on her way to join her husband, with a bundle tied up in a handkerchief; a raw recruit from Texas, dressed in a brown coat, blue trousers, and a red, white, and blue check flannel shirt, who wore a hat with an immensely broad brim; one of General S——'s clerks; and a telegraph operator, with a large bottle of "bust-head" or bad whiskey. The gigantic Texan paid some coarse attentions to the soldier's wife, which did not seem to displease her. He had met her somewhere, at a ball, and felt privileged to encircle her waist with his arm and offer her a drink out of his whiskey-bottle. She left us before breakfast, and in alighting tumbled flat on her back, at which we could not help laughing. The rest then turned upon "Texas," and made some rude but not particularly witty jests at his expense, to which he responded by passing around his bottle.

At one point in the road, the stage suddenly stopped, and the driver called out: "Have any of you fellows in there got a revolver?" I thought of the mail-robbery the week before, and wondered whether or not we were about to be attacked by bushwhackers. It proved, however, that the only enemy in sight was a gang of wild turkeys. "Texas," who claimed to be a crack pistol-shot, jumped out, but the turkeys, who are very fast runners, were out of reach before he could fire.

That night, we rode all night. Towards morning it became very cold. We passed a number of teamsters' camps. Few sights are more delightfully picturesque than the bivouac of wagoners, whether the number of teams be one or one hundred. The bright fires light up the sombre forest, throwing cheerful gleams in every direction into the deep shadows which form the background of the picture. The drivers lie sleeping on the ground, with feet to the fire, while one or two perhaps wake and watch. The animals are freed from their wagons, and every thing, animate or inanimate, is at rest, save the curling, crackling flames, and the blue tufts of twisted smoke rising into the night air. At such a place as this we stopped to warm. Leaving the stage in the road, we marched up to the smouldering embers of a prostrate tree which was burning for nearly its entire length, and without notice or ceremony poked among the coals and heaped on fresh fuel, until all the country around was brilliantly illuminated. The teamster started up from his dreams; his curiosity mastered his drowsiness; and he asked a hundred questions. At another fire, where we thawed out once more, a half-dozen soldiers were stationed as a picket. Two of them were on guard; the rest slept, covered by a pile of blankets, with their feet resting on their loaded muskets.

I came back from R—— in an ambulance, and was three days on the road. We passed several parties of "movers." In one ox-wagon the lazy husband sat at ease upon the front of the cart, while his tall, lank, muscular wife, in a homespun dress which clung to her figure, drove the cattle, wielding an enormous whip, the handle of which was longer than herself. Another team of oxen was driven by a boy ten years old, while his father and mother brought up the rear with a dozen cows and calves and two or three mules.

Since my return, I have been at work in a tobacco factory. I found 1,500 sick soldiers in town, some of them sleeping in pews and upon the bare floor in an old church, others in tents, and in one house 27 men are crowded into a room fifteen feet square, without beds, and they do their cooking in the same room. I offered my services to the medical director, to assist in making suitable provision for these poor fellows, that they might not die for want of proper attention. He called out a squad of about twenty prisoners, under guard of ten soldiers, and, under my direction they have cleaned out and renovated a large factory, which is to be used as a hospital, and will accommodate one hundred and fifty patients. The floor has been scrubbed, new doors and stairways built, a chimney erected, and the walls covered, on the inside, with canvas, which was procured by ripping up some old, condemned tents.

The mention of this tobacco factory reminds me of Libby prison, at Richmond, and that again of the rebel prisoners here. I do not believe that the tobacco warehouses in the rebel capital are any more filthy or uncomfortable than the college in which our prisoners are confined. They are perhaps more crowded, and the men are less bountifully fed,

and are more exposed to insult and abuse from their captors. But in the college building, prisoners sleep on the floor, without beds or bedding ; even the sick are no better off. There are neither chairs nor tables in the rooms. Many of the men are unprovided with sufficient clothing. One poor fellow, who worked with me in fitting up the new hospital, had a handkerchief wrapped around his head in place of a hat, and for stockings he had wrapped his feet in woollen rags and thrust them into what may once have been a pair of shoes. One morning the whole gang came to work, without having had any breakfast. I have written, by permission of General B——, to Mrs. S——, and asked her to collect some money among her friends with southern sympathies, to furnish these wretched sufferers with bedticks and blankets, at least.

General B—— has issued an order requiring the occupants of houses owned by rebels, whose owners are absent, to pay rent, as they would have to do if the owners were here. This money is to be paid to a collector appointed by himself, and is to constitute a fund for the relief of the destitute, of which I am to have the entire control. I have summoned the ladies to my assistance, who have organized a relief society, and have undertaken to visit personally and ascertain the actual condition of the indigent families in town, whose name is legion. In a single day they found thirty families, numbering more than a hundred women and children, who have been impoverished by the war. I have obtained the use of a storehouse, and shall buy bacon, flour, meal, etc., and employ some one to weigh, measure and distribute the provisions. No family will receive aid except by my order, on a printed ticket, which must be presented on a certain morning of each week, at the storehouse. Every adult and every child over ten years of age thus aided will receive a weekly ration of three pounds of bacon, three pounds of flour, two pounds of corn-meal, and a quantity of dried beans or hominy. Children three years old, and under ten, are to be allowed half-rations. Under three years, they will receive nothing. I have printed and circulated a notice inviting the poor to come to me for help. Of course, this additional work will take time from other duties ; but unless I attend to it, no one will.

In consequence of the necessity for looking after the poor, I have announced that I shall hereafter preach in the church in town only in the evenings. I preach at the hospital every Sunday afternoon. I have dismissed the entire corps of teachers in the Sunday-school, because they could not be depended upon, would make little if any preparation for their work, did not interest their scholars, would not visit them at their homes, and the school was rapidly dwindling away. The organization is now broken up, and I have assumed the entire charge, thrown all the classes into one, and design myself to be the sole teacher. The Sunday-school will henceforth take the place of the morning service.

December.—The care of the poor is a great tax upon my time, especially when I have to sit up all night with the sick and dying. A fortnight ago I took charge of a family of refugees, of whom seven died in less than one week, from want and exposure to cold. I saw three of them die in a single night, upon the bare floor, without clothing enough to keep them warm. On two other nights, I closed the eyes of two others.

The paymaster has paid us but one visit since I received my commission.

General B—— has invited me to take a seat at his mess.

January, 1863.—We have had a battle. I heard, the night before, that an attack was looked for, but I did not believe it. On Thursday morning I breakfasted with General B——, and found that the report was true. "If there is any fighting to be done," said I, "I want a part in it." "The best thing that you can do," he retorted, "is to go to your room and pray for reinforcements." "Ah, General," I replied, "I fear that that is past praying for," at which they all laughed.

After breakfast I sauntered up street and borrowed a sword and a pistol. The general loaned me a very handsome white horse. I took my station by his side, in the fort, and a few moments later, the action began. A ball from a rebel cannon went whiz-z-z over our heads, and down went mine, involuntarily, after which I laughed. I was standing in the bastion, behind our big gun, whose reports made me nervous. The general said "Chaplain, I don't know which is worse, the fire of the enemy's cannon or our own."

I shall not describe this engagement. It will be fully written up in the newspapers and in the official reports.

When the little leaden pellets began to ring around my ears—ping ! ping ! ping !—I thought "What if one of those fellows should hit me? I may be dead in less than an hour." But soon I was able to dismiss this fear.

It is not the crack ! crack ! of the rifles which frightens one. That is no more terrible than the roll of thunder, when we know that the lightning's work is done. What aggravates one's nerves is the singing of the bullets, like so many venomous mosquitoes. You can no more tell where the bullet is, which side of you, or where it is going, than you can find a mosquito in the dark. Then you hear one go crack ! against the fence in front of you, or chug ! in the flesh of a horse or of a man, and are sure that that particular ball will not hit you. The cessation of sound is like that of a hissing rocket suddenly quenched in a river.

I had fancied that a man in battle would be filled with passion ; that, seeing his comrades fall by his side, anger would fill his soul, and that he could not restrain a feeling of bitter animosity toward the foe. But I felt nothing of this. "It is a pity," said I to myself, "to shoot a man. But the enemy must be whipped. They cannot be whipped without killing and wounding ; they are doing their best to kill and wound us ; we must kill and wound them." If I had shot twenty men—and I shot nobody—at every shot, I should have said, in my own mind, "My dear fellow ! I don't bear you the least malice in life ; I would not willingly hurt a hair of your head. But if that is your game, here 's at you ! " I could have run to him, after he was fallen, picked him up, taken him to my own room, and nursed him like a brother, till he should have recovered ; but with a distinct understanding that, if he should go into battle against me again, I would do my best to shoot him another time.

Another illusion vanished. I had supposed that it would be with me in a fight as it is with drowning men ; that all my past life would rise before me, as in a vision. But it was not so. I had not many thoughts or feelings : all were absorbed in one—"The rebels must be repulsed ! They shall not enter the town ! " Blended with this were various emotions, such as sorrow for the wounded, the fear of defeat, pity for the women and children trembling in their homes at every gust of the leaden tempest, and a feeling of strange delight in the wild excitement of the scene, a thrill of pleasure, as I saw the courage of others, felt my own rise, and thought that this being of splendid bravery and endurance is Man ! When a soldier sees a brave man fighting, he loves him ; he would be glad to fall on his neck and embrace him. But no words can convey any notion of the contempt with which he views a coward.

Poets and orators, in depicting the horrors of the battle-field, make much of the groans of the wounded and the dying. It is not enough for them to paint blood flowing, ghastly countenances, stiffened limbs, a blaze of fire and a cloud of smoke. They would paint sounds, and make you believe that, above the rattle of musketry, the roar of cannon, and the indescribable shriek of shells, human wails can be heard.

Men brave enough to fight do not ordinarily groan much when wounded ; often they are not sensible at once that they have been wounded; they may wince under the surgeon's knife, but make no loud outcry on the field. The only sound like a groan which I heard was the howling of some dogs over the carcass of a canine acquaintance, who had not had sense enough to get out of the way. How terrified the dogs were ! Many of them shrunk into the houses of strangers, and hid under beds or crouched quivering on the floor.

The chief part of my duty consisted in helping to remove the wounded. In the course of my rounds, I found a dying captain, happy—so happy! "Let me tell you," he said, "that I have been a minister in the Methodist Church." Not a doubt of his eternal welfare ruffled his mind. We lifted him into the ambulance, and he lingered, contrary to my expectation, for several days, happy every minute, a bright example to the men in the hospital ward with him. Daily he exhorted them to be always ready for death. On the last evening of his life he sent for me to administer to him the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, that he might bear testimony to the faithfulness of his Saviour to His promises. "It is all that I can do," he told me, "to keep from being enthusiastic, in view of the glory which awaits the children of God!" Twenty other wounded men lay on cots in the same room. The Christian nurses came to break bread with us, of four or five different denominations, and mingled their voices in a song of heaven, where there shall be no war and no sects.

INTER-STATE EXTRADITION.

The governors of New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Vermont have addressed an invitation to the governors of other States and Territories to meet at the Murray Hill Hotel, in the City of New York, at noon, on the 23d of August. The purpose of this meeting is to secure, if possible, the adoption of a uniform system of rules and practice to govern the inter-State extradition of fugitives from justice. The sessions of the conference will be held at the rooms of the New York City Bar Association. Dr. Theodore W. Dwight, warden of the Columbia Law School, and Samuel T. Spear, the eminent writer on the law of international and inter-state extradition, have been invited to be present and give their assistance in the framing of an agreed code. Governors who cannot attend in person are requested to commission some authorized representative, trained in the study and practical operation of the extradition laws, and empowered to give the assent of the governor to whatever action may be taken.

OUR BOOK-TABLE.

Hospitalité et Travail, on des Moyens Préventifs de Combattre la Mendicité et le Vagabondage : par E. Robin, auteur de la Question Pénitentiaire. Paris, Monnerat, Librarie-éditeur, 48, Rue de Lille : 1887. *Pp.* 196.*

Pastor Robin believes in moral hygiene. The prevention of pauperism is better than its alleviation. His book is an elaboration of the theme expressed in two of the propositions of the Rome Congress, namely : (1) Public relief should be so ordered that every person in need may be certain of obtaining the means of subsistence, but only as a recompense for labor performed by him, adapted to his physical ability ; (2) The poor person who, in spite of such relief thus regulated, gives himself up to vagrancy and so renders himself liable to the penalties prescribed by law, should be severely punished by compulsory labor in a workhouse.

We must first of all distinguish between the mendicant by choice and the man who is merely out of employment and destitute of friends or resources. Beggary can be suppressed, and it ought to be. Yet those who live by pandering to vice constitute a still more dangerous element in the community.

Professional vagabonds are the despair of magistrates. No sooner are they released from prison than they begin again their vagrant life. Neither kindness nor severity makes any adequate impression upon them. By the number of times that they are recommitted, they swell to an enormous extent the figures which represent recidivism in our criminal statistics. Yet the vagabond is not ordinarily a criminal ; he is merely indolent and incapable. Repeated imprisonment may convert him into a criminal ; it can never make him less a vagrant. For that, a longer term of imprisonment, after the second or third conviction, is essential. But he should not be incarcerated with malefactors, but in a workhouse, specially to be provided for him.

Paris, like all other great cities, is full of persons who are unemployed. If the moths who are attracted by the brilliance of the candle could only be kept away from the flame ! But all advice to parents in the country to prevent their children from coming to the city, unless they have a situation engaged in advance, is futile to dam the stream of young, fresh blood which pours into the abyss. The next best thing to do is to send the unemployed from the country back to their homes. But till this can be accomplished, they must have help, while seeking work. Gratuitous assistance demoralizes its recipients ; hence the necessity for the labor test and what is known in America as "the wayfarer's inn."

Between pauperism and crime there is no sharp line of demarcation. Often crime is due to misfortune. The casual pauper is only a fictitious criminal ; but the moment that he begins to be a pauper from choice, he begins the descent into crime. To save him from taking this first step is the problem of humanity and of statesmanship.

Pastor Robin describes the systems of dealing with pauperism in Holland, in England, and in the United States. He contrasts the French system with them. The fault of that system is not so mucn in the law as in the failure to carry it out in its letter and spirit. The poor are sent to prison, for the want of a sufficient number and variety of temporary refuges for those in distress.

The second part of this interesting volume is devoted to the solution of the problem which the author has stated in part first. We commend it to our readers as well deserving their attention. He discusses, among other things, the organization of public relief at Paris ; the Elberfeld plan ; the work of Dr. Barnardo with the street Arabs of London ; Mrs. Meredith's laundry for the employment of discharged female prisoners, at Nine Elms ; the German system of industrial colonies for free men, of which the first was founded in 1882—Wilhelmsdorf, in Westphalia ; the similar colonies of Holland, dating back to the year 1817 ; the Swiss societies for the suppression of mendicancy and vagabondage ; the International Union of Friends of Young Women; and other similar more or less successful experiments. We shall draw upon this treasure-house for future articles in the RECORD.

In conclusion, Pastor Robin appeals to private charity to do what it can for the relief of suffering, and submits a project of a law relating to vagrancy and begging in France, the point of which is the creation of almshouses in the several departments.

That charity is bad which takes from independence its proper pride, from mendicity its salutary shame.—SOUTHEY.

Egotism in conversation is universally abhorred. Lovers, and I believe lovers alone, pardon it in each other.—LORD MACAULAY.

Afin d'être égale pour tous, la peine devrrait être différente pour chacun. (Punishment, to be equal, must not be identical for all.)—JOSEPH REYNAUD.

Cheerfulness is, in the first place, the best promoter of health. Repinings and secret murmurs of heart give imperceptible strokes to those delicate fabrics of which the vital parts are composed and wear out the machinery insensibly.—ADDISON.

Scholars are men of peace ; they bear no arms, but their tongues are sharper than Actius' sword ; their pens carry feathers and give a louder report than thunder. I had rather stand in the shock of a basilisk than in the fury of a merciless pen.—SIR T. BROWNE.

* "Relief and Employment, or the Means of Preventing Beggary and Vagrancy" ; by E. Robin, author of "The Prison Question."

LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

Hospitals for the insane, which are the property of the state, and managed by trustees elected by the legislature, or appointed by the governor, as the case may be, do not usually require very much supervision, other than that which is given by the trustees themselves. The trustees appoint the medical superintendent, and, where the institution is properly organized, the superintendent appoints the assistant physician and other officers and employés, subject to the vote of the governing board. The trustees meet monthly or quarterly for the purpose of auditing the accounts, inspecting the establishment, and consulting the superintendent as to all questions which may arise affecting the welfare of the institutions or inmates. The purpose of the legislature, in organizing state boards of public charities, is not so much to insure the performance of their duty by the trustees, as it is to supervise the expenditure of moneys appropriated for the entire group of charitable and correctional institutions in the state, and to bring all the parts of the system under a single governing head, so as to secure harmony, efficiency, and economy in its general administration.

Private institutions for the insane are, however, not subject to direct state control. They are often the property of individuals, and are not even accountable to a board of managers for their official conduct. They are conducted for profit (which is not true of state institutions), and it is conceivable that abuses might grow up in them more readily than in a public establishment. It is right and proper that whatever supervision is exercised over the state institutions by a state board of commissioners of public charities, or commissioners in lunacy, should be exercised over them also. Whether they should be licensed or not, is a question concerning which more or less diversity of opinion exists. It would seem, however, that no private person can have the right to hold another, whether sane or insane, under lock and key, as many of the insane must be kept, unless authorized by law to do so. It may be said that this authorlty is given by the court, when the court commits a lunatic to the custody of a private institution. This is true ; but what must be said of the detention of lunatics in private institutions by a simple medical certificate, without the intervention of the court? And it would seem more natural that, if the courts are to commit insane persons to private institutions, the institutions to which they may be committed should be designated by some official responsible body capable of determining whether the premises, the appointments, the medical care and general treatment of patients are of a character to justify such commitment or not. This is all that a license is supposed to mean. It is not intended to be an instrument of oppression, and, once given, should not be revoked without sufficient cause and proof made in open court.

After all, the principal necessity for official supervision of the insane arises from the fact that so many of them are not committed either to public or private institutions, but are detained at home, or kept in almshouses. The necessity for inspecting the insane departments of almshouses will not be questioned by any one who has even a superficial knowledge of their condition. An almshouse is a place for paupers, and a pauper is commonly supposed to be one who has brought himself to poverty, either by his own vice or by his improvidence, and therefore does not deserve much consideration at the hands of the public. The authorities of towns and counties are, besides, unwilling to make the condition of paupers too comfortable, through fear of increasing their number. It not infrequently happens that the care of paupers is let to the lowest bidder, or if not, it is expected of the almshouse keeper that he will maintain those sent to him at the least possible expense both for food and for clothing. While there are many honorable exceptions, the keepers of almshouses are not as a rule remarkable either for their intelligence or their humanity. They know little about insanity. They do not appreciate the needs of the insane, and are often afraid of them. The consequence is that the insane are unnecessarily deprived of their personal freedom, and secluded in cells which are bare of every comfort, badly lighted, poorly ventilated, and imperfectly heated, or not heated at all. No attendants are provided for them. Their food is inferior in quality, and sometimes insufficient in quantity ; their persons are neglected ; they have no occupation of any sort, and they sink rapidly into a condition of pitiable imbecility. The filthy state of their persons and surroundings is often such as not to bear description. Occasionally they are found to be absolutely naked, and if they are disposed to be noisy or troublesome—above all, if they are believed to be dangerous—they are loaded with chains or governed by threats and intimidation. We have known of their being whipped, and of pistols being fired over their heads. Without constant official supervision it is impossible to correct the abuses to which allusion has been made.

Even in private families the treatment of lunatics is sometimes extremely harsh and cruel.

The ends sought in the appointment of a commission or commissioner in lunacy, or in conferring upon state commissioners of public charities the powers usually vested in lunacy commissioners, are : first, the collection of authentic and trustworthy information with regard to the number and condition of the insane ; second, the formation of a correct public sentiment as to their needs, and the treatment which should be accorded to them ; third, the study of systems and methods of caring for them, and the impartial observation of the results which follow ; fourth, the protection of the insane, wherever found, in public or private, against neglect and cruelty and abuse ; fifth, the protection of those who are not insane, or not so insane as to require restraint or seclusion, from unnecessary and hurtful restrictions upon their personal liberty. In order to accomplish these ends, power must be vested somewhere to issue and to enforce such orders as will remedy grievances of whatever nature, wherever they may be found to exist. The first of these essential powers is the power to investigate, which involves not simply the right to enter and inspect all places where any insane person may be confined, but to make inquiry under oath, and to send, if necessary, for persons and papers, and to enforce the attendance of witnesses and the giving of testimony. The other two most essential powers are those of discharge and of transfer.

With respect to discharges, this power is commonly vested exclusively in the boards of trustees of state hospitals for the insane, acting by the advice of the medical superintendent.

The law requires that every insane patient shall be discharged when restored to reason ; but many patients do not recover, and as to their discharge, the directions given in the statutes are usually less explicit. It is clear that the overcrowding of a hospital for the insane is an injury to the patients, and, if pushed beyond a certain point, it becomes and is an almost insufferable barrier to their recovery. There is not a State in the Union in which provision for the insane, in State institutions at least, is adequate to the demand made upon them for admission. To make room for new cases, others must be turned out ; but where is the discretionary power lodged of determining who shall be admitted and who discharged ? Those who have the first claim upon the institution are the recent and curable cases ; next, the furiously mad and dangerous, who are a perpetual menace to the security and tranquillity of society ; third, those who have no homes, and whose homes are such that, for one reason or another, they cannot live at home, or ought not to be allowed to live there ; fourth, wandering lunatics, who will not remain long in any one place unless confined ; finally, insane persons who do not fall under either of the above descriptions. The same reasons which render the admission of a patient imperative indicate his retention so long as there

is no alteration in his condition or circumstances ; but there is reason to believe that the officers in charge of institutions for the insane are sometimes influenced in the matter of discharges by other considerations than the good of the patient himself or that of the public. They consult their own convenience, and release a troublesome patient because he is troublesome ; or the good of the institution, and retain a quiet patient who is able to work because he is of use. Or it may even be that social and political influences are brought to bear upon them, which modify their action. It becomes a question, therefore, how far the power of discharge should be discretionary with them.

If the position which we have taken, namely, that it is unlawful to deprive even a lunatic of his personal liberty or the control of his property without the order of the court, is correct, then it would seem to follow that every lunatic who is in custody should be considered as in some sense in the custody of the court, so long as the court itself does not order his release. In the case of a criminal who is arrested by the order of the court, tried by a court, convicted by a court, and sentenced by a court, the law itself, or the court, acting in accordance with the criminal statutes, fixes the duration of imprisonment ; but the length of time during which an insane person shall be held cannot be so fixed ; yet if the adjudication of an individual to be insane involves the loss of personal freedom and of the right to citizenship and the management of his own affairs, judicial action ought probably to be required to restore a lunatic who has recovered his reason to the possession of the rights of which he has for a time been deprived. Certainly if a committee has been appointed to take charge of his estate, this committee will continue to act in that capacity, until the finding of the court is reversed by a subsequent finding. Ought not the court, having entered of record that A. B. is insane and is committed to an hospital or asylum for the insane, to enter upon the record in like manner the subsequent fact of his discharge from the asylum ? In other words, if the order of the court is necessary for his detention in an institution, is it not equally necessary for his detention elsewhere, so long as it continues to be proper to deprive him of his personal freedom ? And if, though still insane, he is so far recovered that he may safely be allowed to go at large, ought not the court to enter that fact upon the record ? In our judgment, a perfect lunacy law should impose upon the court in which any person is adjudged to be insane the duty of keeping watch over him, so long as he continues to be insane and is still alive. No existing statute, so far as our knowledge extends, has ever regarded this point. It may be thought impracticable to do it, but we believe that the difficulties in the way may be surmounted, and that such a record as we suggest would be of inestimable value. It would be of service not only in the protection of the insane and the regulation of the management of institutions for their benefit, but as an aid to the determination of many questions thus far regarded as insoluble. For instance, it would probably enable us to determine with precision the death-rate of the insane. But we will not pursue the discussion of this branch of the subject at present.

With the present number we bring the series of articles on legislation for the insane, which has taken so much of our space, to a conclusion, in the hope that they may have interested and profited some of our readers.

EX-OFFICIO DUTIES.

In legislating for the government of public institutions, whether of a charitable or correctional nature, it is not uncommon to prescribe that certain officials shall be *ex-officio* members of the board of managers. Such legislation is open to weighty objections. Even if we suppose that the duties already imposed upon a public officer are not sufficient to occupy his time and strength, it is by no means certain that the accident of his having been elected or appointed to fill one position will qualify him for the discharge of duties of a wholly different nature. Besides, it is far less likely that duties *ex officio* will be performed in an efficient manner, than those which are specifically included in an original commission : the appointment is apt to be regarded as titular and ceremonial, more a matter of compliment than of sincerity. In almost any event, it is certain that such duties will be regarded by the official to whom they are assigned as of secondary and subordinate importance.

It is especially inappropriate to make the governor of a State an *ex-officio* member of any board or commission whatsoever, for the reason that he holds ordinarily the power of appointment and discharge of the other members associated with him. This has a tendency to give to his suggestions and counsels an undue weight in their minds ; it reduces them to a condition of quasi-subserviency to his personal wishes. Particularly is this the case where the membership of a board is divided equally between two opposite political parties, and the governor holds the balance of power between them. This arrangement throws upon him the personal responsibility of a decision, in some cases, from which he ought on the contrary to be relieved. In a word, the system is wrong, because it compels the governor to occupy a double relation ; as a member of the board he is accountable to himself as governor. If not, then his relation as a member is not the same as that of the other members of the board, and they are not upon an equality in the discussions which take place among them.

This may seem to some of our readers a matter of trifling importance, but it deserves consideration ; and the consequences of adopting a wrong principle and a wrong method may in individual instances prove more serious than one would at first apprehend.

THE BAKER MEMORIAL.

The following is a list of American subscribers to the Barwick Baker Memorial Window, to be erected in the Gloucester Cathedral, in honor of his services as a promoter of the reformatory system in Great Britain and throughout the world :

Frederick H. Wines, Springfield, Illinois ; Secretary of the Illinois State Board of Public Charities ; £1.
J. D. Scouller, M.D., Pontiac, Illinois ; Superintendent of the Illinois State Reform School ; £1.
W. P. Letchworth, Albany, N. Y.; President of the New York State Board of Charities ; £5.
Chas. S. Hoyt, M.D., Albany, N. Y. ; Secretary of the New York State Board of Charities ; £1.
Josephine Shaw Lowell, New York ; Commissioner of the New York State Board of Charities ; £5 5*s*.
Miss Lowell, New York City ; £1 1*s*.
A Friend, New York City ; £1 1*s*.
Mr. C. B. Minturn, New York City ; £2 2*s*.
The Misses Minturn, New York City ; £1 1*s*.
Israel C. Jones, New York City ; Superintendent of the House of Refuge ; £1.
George Hoadley, New York City ; Ex-Governor of the State of Ohio and Ex-President of the Ohio State Board of Charities ; £1 1*s*.
Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, Ohio ; Commissioner of the Ohio State Board of Charities ; £1.
John W. Andrews, Columbus, Ohio ; Commissioner of the Ohio State Board of Charities ; £1.
William Howard Neff, Cincinnati, Ohio ; Commissioner of the Ohio State Board of Charities ; £1.
A. G. Byers, M.D., Columbus, Ohio ; Secretary of the Ohio State Board of Charities ; £1.
Philip C. Garrett, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania ; President of the Pennsylvania Board of Public Charities ; £2.
Total, as far as heard from, £26 11*s*.

An effort will be made to add to this list at Omaha and Toronto. Meanwhile, wardens of prisons, superintendents of reformatories, members and officers of State boards of charity, and other interested persons are invited to send in their contributions to Mr. W. P. Letchworth (whose residence is at Portageville, N. Y.), who has kindly consented to act for the American committee.

COST OF INSANE HOSPITALS.

In December last we printed a table showing the cost of maintenance of the insane in institutions, prepared by Dr. Stevens of St. Louis. By the kindness of Mr. John W. Whipp, the experienced and careful accountant of the Illinois Board of Public Charities, we are enabled to give a later and fuller statement, embracing 78 hospitals and asylums. Except the institutions marked with an asterisk (*), which are for 1885, all the figures are for the fiscal year 1886. The difficulty of preparing such a table is due to uncertainty in many cases both as to the average number of inmates during the year, and as to the amount of expense properly chargeable to maintenance. Many institutions publish only biennial reports, and do not give statistical or financial information to each year separately. In that case, we have divided the expenditure for two years in half, and taken the average number for the two years. In some reports the average number is not stated; if not, we have assumed the mean between the number present at the beginning and the end of the year to be the average.

The following is our

Table.

Institutions.	Average Number of Patients.	Expense for Maintenance.	Per Capita Cost.
Willard	1835	$248,307 27	$135 31
Indianapolis	1542	258,611 67	167 71
Kankakee	1471	248,621 30	169 07
Stockton	1449	196,610 45	135 69
Norristown	1427	286,972 88	201 07
Napa	1423	197,951 52	139 11
Flatbush	1413	162,703 96	115 14
Milledgeville	1237	152,345 44	123 19
Washington,	1220	292,840 64	240 03
Middletown, Conn.	1078	207,792 13	192 76
Columbus	950	169,993 91	178 94
Jacksonville	856	153,146 73	178 94
Morris Plains	845	238,342 94	282 06
Saint Peter	798	135,135 21	169 21
Danville	798	157,304 76	197 12
Kalamazoo	782	195,029 22	249 40
Worcester (acute)	756	140,591 55	185 97
Danvers	749	148,785 32	198 65
Tuskaloosa	722	107,651 38	149 10
Anchorage	689	104,642 63	151 88
Weston	685	77,404 91	113 00
Longview	685	102,550 51	149 64
Taunton	683	127,158 01	186 18
Binghamton	675	97,454 31	144 37
Athens	672	113,403 36	168 75
Trenton	658	155,448 21	236 24
Anna	655	111,967 91	170 99
Warren	641	116,951 54	182 45
Winnebago	637	110,313 04	173 02
Pontiac	637	147,874 79	232 14
Cleveland	635	110,753 49	173 02
Independence	633	138,102 11	218 17
Columbia	623	87,374 87	140 27
Lexington	598	119,563 42	200 00
Jackson, La.	597	58,607 10	98 17
Dayton	592	103,071 69	174 11
Staunton	589	93,983 68	159 56
Rochester	581	93,637 93	161 17
Utica	577	175,467 89	304 10
Austin	572	98,042 91	171 40
Hopkinsville	547	77,667 73	140 16
Elgin	533	115,021 90	215 87
Mendota	523	98,878 86	189 06
Dixmont	522	114,812 03	219 95
Saint Louis	492	81,227 60	165 10
Mount Pleasant	485	92,985 40	191 72
Topeka	481	103,549 34	215 70
Northampton	474	94,851 90	199 94
Augusta	474	108,552 44	229 01
Harrisburgh	449	83,170 08	185 23
Richmond	448	59,695 81	133 26
Brattleborough	436	81,249 19	186 35
* Jackson, Miss.	428	59,270 82	138 44
Williamsburgh	409	78,929 11	192 73
Worcester (chronic)	400	62,838 61	157 09
Catonsville	400	83,625 91	209 06
Poughkeepsie	400	106,787 26	266 97
Osawatomie	396	91,992 75	232 31
Traverse City	378	65,318 99	172 80
Lincoln	367	66,716 13	181 79
Buffalo	365	109,076 52	298 84
Pennsylvania	364	88,185 70	241 45
Essex Co., N. J.	362	63,600 86	186 74
Concord	322	72,435 19	224 95
Bloomingdale	272	197,446 47	725 91
Raleigh	251	47,879 83	190 75
Morganton	250	50,695 41	202 78
South Boston	236	61,744 17	261 26
Auburn	194	39,683 29	204 56
Butler	177	85,167 27	481 17
Goldsborough	171	23,634 07	138 19
McLean	169	140,070 72	828 18
Carson City	160	40,756 44	254 73
Yankton	148	40,204 91	298 68
Fort Steilacoom	142	25,104 01	176 79
Toledo	122	18,994 12	155 69
Friends' Asylum	104	72,467 96	792 96
Adams Nervine	28	34,688 31	1,238 56
Totals and average	47,554	$8,925,621 24	$187 69

Remarks.

From this table we can form a tolerably accurate notion of the ordinary or current expenses of the entire circle of institutions specially designed for the care of the insane. If the average cost per capita is $187.50, and the estimate in our April number of the total population of these establishments is correct, then $187.50 multiplied by 45,000 gives as the product sought about $8,500,000. It must be understood that this figure is not meant to include expenditures for additional provision for the insane, such as enlargement of existing hospitals or the erection of new ones; it does not even include many of the special improvements made which add to the comfort of inmates but not to the capacity of the institutions. It is the annual tax paid by the sane for the support of 45,000 lunatics in the insane hospitals of the United States.

The table further serves to throw light upon a disputed question, namely, whether the enlargement of institutions tends to any marked reduction in the per capita cost of support and treatment of patients.

If the reader will divide the list into three equal parts, he will discover that the upper third includes 26 institutions, with a total population of 26,098 insane, or about 1,000 patients each, who cost in the aggregate $4,476,800.22, or $171.54 each.

The middle third embraces 14,441 insane, who cost $2,621,506.19, or $180.83 each.

The lower third embraces 7,015 insane, costing $1,827,314.83, or $260.49 each.

The average size of the second group of hospitals is about 550, and of the third group about 250.

The cost of the third group per capita is swollen by the expensive private establishments at Bloomingdale, Providence, Boston, Philadelphia, and Jamaica Plains. Leaving these out, the per capita cost would be but $207.10.

According to these figures, the economy of enlarging from a capacity of 250 to one of 500 or 600 is much more apparent than that of enlarging from 500 or 600 to 1,000. The difference between $207.10 and 180.83 is $26.27; but that between $180.83 and $171.54 is only $9.29. One institution for 500 patients will cost about $13,000 less per annum, on an average, than two institutions for 250 patients would do. But one institution for 1,000 patients will cost only about $9,000 less per annum than two institutions for 500 each. It is reasonable to suppose that, after passing the 1,000 limit, the reduction in cost grows proportionably less.

The question of enlargement of existing institutions re-

solves itself, therefore, into this: Is the reduced cost resulting from such enlargement sufficient to counterbalance the inconveniences and evils which result from overgrowth? We should say that, ordinarily, it is not. The time will come when this will be the generally received opinion, and the glowing economic prophecies which now impose upon legislatures will have lost their power to deceive.

At the same time, it must be confessed that tables of per capita cost are also misleading. It is difficult to make any practical application of the doctrine of averages, and the circumstances surrounding different institutions are so varied that one is not a rule for another. Institution accounts are not stated as yet on any uniform system, and they require much explanation to be properly understood. Nevertheless a casual inspection will enable the reader to see what establishments are more than ordinarily extravagant, and what, on the other hand, are unduly parsimonious.

ANNOUNCEMENTS.

The Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Corrections will convene at Omaha, August 25th.

The annual meeting of the National Prison Association will open in Toronto, Canada, on Saturday, the 10th of September, at 8 o'clock in the evening. The annual sermon before the Association will be preached on Sunday morning. The topics for the next four days are as follows: Monday, "the physical care of the prisoner," and "the moral and religious care of the prisoner." Tuesday, "prison labor" and "the woman and the child in prison." Wednesday, "the indeterminate sentence and conditional liberation," "the discharged prisoner," and "the paying prison." Thursday, "the identification and care of criminals," and "the transportation of criminals."

The Seventeenth Annual Convention of the County Superintendents of the Poor of the State of New York will be held at Babylon, in Suffolk County, August 16th–18th.

The Sixth Annual Convention of the Trustees and Officers of Children's Homes of Ohio (whether public or private institutions, regardless of sect) will convene at Dayton, at 2 o'clock P.M., Tuesday, September 20th. All who are interested in child-saving work are cordially invited to be present.

ALBERT S. WHITE,
Corresponding Secretary.

Prof. Holtzendorff and Dr. E. Jagemann have in press a new manual of penitentiary science entitled "Handbuch des Gefängneissens," which is to be published by J. F. Richter, Hamburg.

PACIFIC COAST.

We have received the Proceedings of the First Pacific Coast Conference of Charities, published by J. W. Roberts & Co., 10 Post St., San Francisco. It is a handsomely printed volume of 237 pages and contains much interesting matter. This new organization has our best wishes for its success.

COMMITTEE OF REVISION.

At the Meeting of the Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane, at Detroit, a committee was appointed "to review the propositions and purposes of the Association and report whether any modifications should be made." Dr. Grissom, the newly elected president, appointed as such committee Drs. Orpheus Everts, of Cincinnati; Daniel Clark, of Toronto; and Foster Pratt, of Kalamazoo.

OUR LETTER-BOX.

The Minnesota State Reformatory is located on 63 acres of land in the city of St. Paul. The property has become too valuable to be occupied for this purpose, and the institution lacks sufficient land and suitable facilities for drainage, water supply, etc. The last legislature authorized the removal of the institution, and a site has been selected at the city of Red Wing, on the Mississippi river. It is estimated that the present property will sell for from $150,000 to $200,000, which will relocate the institution and provide a plant far superior to that now in use.

Rev. M. M'G. Dana, vice-president of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities, has been spending some time in studying European prisons, and will make an important report on that subject after his return. H. HART.

St. Paul, Minnesota, May 31st.

The above was accidentally crowded out of our last issue.

We removed the Kansas Asylum for Idiots to this place in March last. We are prospering and filling up, and will soon reach the extreme limit of accommodation provided.

H. M. GREENE, Superintendent,

Winfield, Kansas, August 4th.

POLICE-MATRONS.

We trust that Mrs. J. K. Barney, of Providence, and the ladies associated with her, will never lay down the weapons of their warfare until, in every city where women are liable to arrest and are in fact arrested by the police and consigned to cells in any jail or lock-up, police-matrons shall be appointed to have the charge of prisoners of their own sex. No reform in our police methods is simpler, or more in accordance with the dictates of experience and common-sense, as well as of religion, decency, and humanity, than this.

FEMALE PHYSICIANS FOR THE INSANE.

The extent to which the movement in favor of the appointment of lady physicians in institutions for the insane has proved successful, thus far, may be judged from the following list of ladies employed as assistants in the institutions named:

Alice Bennett, Norristown, Pennsylvania.
Helen B. Bodelson, Lincoln, Nebraska.
Julia K. Cary, Danvers, Massachusetts.
Bessie E. Earle, Worcester, Massachusetts.
Alice M. Farnham, Willard, New York.
Jane K. Garver, Harrisburgh, Pennsylvania.
Delia E. Howe, Kankakee, Illinois.
Florence M. Hunt, Dunning, Illinois.
Agnes M. Johnson, Athens, Ohio.
Harriet M. Lewis, Norristown, Pennsylvania.
Martha Morgan, Harrisburgh, Pennsylvania.
Ella M. Patton, Tewksbury, Massachusetts.
Alice Rogers, Taunton, Massachusetts.
Ada V. Reel, Norristown, Pennsylvania.
Mary Reynolds, Winnebago, Wisconsin.
E. Amelia Sherman, Independence, Iowa.
Sarah Stockton, Indianapolis, Indiana.
Emily F. Wells, Northampton, Massachusetts.

There are eighteen names in the above list, and possibly other institutions to hear from.

Ear boxing is criminally wicked or senseless. Medical records already investigated by Dr. Sexton for science show fifty-one cases in which the ear has been injured by blows of the open hand or fist. The nature of the injuries varied considerably. One patient had inflammation of the ear, with suspicion of internal injury, and a running of the ear for twelve years following the blow upon that organ. This patient subsequently died of brain disease. In another case the ear became inflamed and the hearing very much impaired. In another case the patient was slapped by his father upon the left ear, and immediate pain and deafness ensued, with a bloody discharge, from which he was three months in recovering. The presumption is that Dr. Sexton has learned of only a few of the children injured in this cruel and thoughtless manner.—*Galveston News.*

CONVICT LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES.*

The prison labor question, in the last analysis, must be considered from three distinct points of view.

First: that of the net cost of the maintenance of prisons.

Second: that of the effect of the competition of convict labor with labor on the outside.

Third: that of the effect of different systems upon prison discipline, and especially upon the success of any efforts which may be made in prison for the reformation of prisoners.

I.—Net Cost of Prisons.

The number of prisoners of all grades, included in the returns made to the Labor Bureau at Washington, in prisons where any industry is pursued, or employed under the lessee system, is 64,349. This is a slight increase over the number reported in the census of 1880. Mr. Wright's figures include some institutions not ordinarily classed as prisons or reformatories; and he omits the unemployed prisoners in jails and lockups.

Of the total number just stated, 45,277 are engaged in productive work of some kind, namely: On public account, 14,827, or 32.75 per cent.; under contract 15,670, or 34.61 per cent.; under the piece-price plan, 5,676, or 12.54 per cent.; and under the lessee system, 9,104, or 20.10 per cent.

The total cost of the prisons to the governments which maintain them is estimated in round numbers at $10,000,000, of which $8,000,000 is chargeable to running expenses. The income from convict labor is $3,500,000, or less than half the cost of maintenance, and about one third the total cost.

The strength of the contract system is in its balance-sheet. Of the three points of view which we have named, the first is that of the business man and the political economist; the second, of the labor agitator and professional politician; the third of the sentimentalist and reformer. The practical business results of the contract system commend it to the business sense of the average citizen.

If we compare the number of prisoners employed under each system with the total manufactured product, we obtain the following result. The total valuation of the product of convict labor for one year is $28,753,999.13. The product of labor on public account, $4.086,637.87, or 14.21 per cent.; contract, $18,896,245.74, or 62.94 per cent.; piece-price, $2,379,180.52, or 8.27 per cent.; lessee, $4,191,935, or 14.58 per cent.

Those who see in a prison nothing but a manufacturing establishment, cannot fail to be impressed by this showing. Rated in the order of their relative efficiency as producing agencies, man for man, the four systems stand to each other, on a scale of 100, as follows: Contract, 100; lessee, 47; piece-price, 43; public account 29.

There are of course various possible explanations of this difference. Private management may be more efficient than official. The investment of a larger proportion of capital in business by contractors than legislatures will consent to risk, tends to fertilize the labor employed and render it more productive. The contract system naturally seeks the great prisons, and it operates to build them up and make them continually larger. But the fact remains, and its significance cannot be ignored.

We should conclude, from our general knowledge of the subject, that the almost universal use of machinery by contractors is an important factor in the problem. This opinion is confirmed by Mr. Wright's estimate of the comparative value of free and convict labor. He assumes a prisoner at work on public account to be equivalent to 78 per cent. of a free man; under contract, 73 per cent.; and on the piece-price plan, 70 per cent. This estimate surprises us somewhat, and we think its accuracy open to debate. But if it is even approximately correct, it is difficult to see why 78 per cent. of a free man should, on the public-account system, produce $275.62 a year; while 70 per cent. of a free man produces $419.16 by the piece-price plan; and 73 per cent. of a free man, under contract, produces $1,154.83—unless the difference is largely due to the use of machinery, and is not to be credited to the increased activity of the convict himself.

Not only is there greater productiveness in a prison under the contract system; it also appears to be cheaper to run. The per capita cost of maintenance of prisons of severe penalties per annum, is, on the average, under the contract system, $126.47; under the piece-price plan, $180.18; and on public account, $232.45. The value of this estimate is, however, less than it would have been were it founded on *all* the prisons of the country, instead of *a selected list.*

II.—Competition with Free Labor.

According to the census of 1880, there were employed in manufacturing, 2,732,595 persons, whose annual product was valued at $5,369,579,191, or $1,965 per capita.

Of the 45,277 prisoners productively employed, after excluding those engaged in agriculture, mining, and on public ways and works, there remain 34,786 who are presumably all engaged in manufacturing, or 1 in 78½ of the manufacturing population.

The estimated value of goods made or work done by convicts, after making a similar deduction, is $25,006,284.82. The per capita product, therefore, is $805, or about two fifths that of free labor. The ratio of the prison product to the total product is 1 to 217, or about one half of one per cent.

This is the extent of the competition of prison labor with that of free men outside of prison walls. Between 12 and 13 per cent. of the whole number of employés engaged in manufacturing, working at so slow a rate of speed or at such disadvantage that they are able to accomplish about two-fifths as much each as an average workman, produce in the aggregate one half of one per cent. of the total manufactured product of the country.

As to wages, Mr. Wright asserts that the wages paid to free employés, in 1880, were at the rate of $1 to $5.66 in product, while the price paid for labor by contractors and lessees averages $1 to $8.19 of product. We wish that contractors and lessees had not been thus united into one generalization, since it is important to know the fact as to contractors in the northern States, where the complaint against convict labor is the loudest.

We have said that the total product of labor by convicts is estimated at $28,753,999. This is distributed by States as follows:

New York	$6,236,320 98	New Jersey	$1,019,608 32
Illinois	3,284,267 50	Massachusetts	979,451 20
Indiana	1,570,901 37	Virginia	786,289 95
Ohio	1,368,122 51	Texas	652,742 00
Missouri	1,342,020 27	Alabama	636,240 00
Pennsylvania	1,317,265 85	Maryland	573,000 00
Kansas	1,142,000 00	Kentucky	460,061 86
Michigan	1,087,735 62	All other States	6,297,771 57

The following are the amounts credited to the leading industries:

Boots and shoes	$10,100,279
Clothing	2,199,635
Carriages and wagons	1,989,790
Harnesses and saddlery	1,374,404
Furniture	1,280,066
Barrels	834,964
Brooms, brushes, etc.	834,956
Agricultural implements	664,090
Cigars	402,499
Brick	286,788
Total	$19,927,471

* Second Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor, 1886. Convict Labor. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1887. Pp. 612.

These institutions manufacture one tenth of all the brooms and brushes made in the United States ; one twentieth of the boots and shoes ; one thirtieth of the harnesses and saddlery ; one thirty-eighth of the wagons and carriages ; one fortieth of the barrels ; and one sixtieth of the furniture.

Concerning the manufacture of boots and shoes, Mr. Wright remarks :

> The per capita product of free labor for the year is $1,492 in all the States in which boots and shoes are manufactured in prisons, while the per capita for convict labor is $1,327 per annum. The product for all States, whether employing convicts on boots and shoes or not, is $1,496. These values show that, so far as boots and shoes are concerned, the convict produces as much per annum as the free laborer, lacking $169 per capita.

The effect of competition is felt more in certain lines of business and in certain localities than it is in others. What influence the system of labor pursued exercises to augment or diminish it, is not very apparent. Mr. Wright thinks it should be reduced to a minimum, and that the only way to bring this about is to dispense with machinery in prisons, and to allow no sort of work other than handwork. The fact that the product of individual exertion by the convict is greater under the contract system than under any other, indicates that the competition must be greatest under that system also, which is probably the case.

III.—The Reformation of Prisoners.

To speak of a reformatory discipline in prisons is to run the risk of exciting a sneer. There are many who do not believe in the possibility of any improvement of natural character, or, at least, any alteration in the habits, tastes and tendencies of a fully matured man or woman. We do not belong to that school of thought. Reason, religion, and experience are opposed to it. In the report before us, it is well said that "the feeling toward the criminal has been neither Christian, nor statesmanlike, nor philosophical. He is neither abhorred, nor cured, nor disarmed." And again : "It is extremely difficult to secure public attention in prison matters, solely in regard to the administration of prisons, or when the question of prison reform or the reformation of convicts is alleged as the reason for attracting public attention. It is comparatively easy, however, to secure the attention of the public when dollars and cents, wages, prices, and sales comprise the reasons for discussion. So, through economic reasons, the agitation of the convict-labor question has brought to the public eye the condition of prisons, and the question of crime and how to treat criminals, more forcibly than could have been done by a simpler method. The world owes something to those who have constantly agitated the subject of prison labor."

From this side, the objections to the contract system are most obvious and indisputable. The prisoner himself feels it to be unjust. The freedom and independence of the warden are compromised by it. Under it, it is most difficult to pay sufficient attention to the intellectual and moral development of the men. Its aim and the aim of a reformatory discipline are as wide apart as the poles. The one seeks to make money ; the other regards the redemption of a human soul as a nobler reward than wealth. The contract system is pervaded through and through by the selfishness of contractors. It accepts the criminal as a social and economic fact ; it utilizes him for private and material ends ; it degrades him by the very attitude it assumes toward him ; it looks upon him and treats him as a slave. Its natural and inevitable tendency is to stimulate the overgrowth of penal establishments. It sets up a false standard of excellence in prison discipline. We cannot regard it as other than an abomination. Our moral sense revolts at it.

The lessee system is even worse. It is an aggravated form of the same disease.

Mr. Wright hints that this is his opinion also. He remembers "an instance of a man sentenced to an eastern prison for obtaining goods under false pretences,who was at once set to work making shoes in which the spaces between the inner and outer soles were filled with paper instead of leather."

A striking fact is the comparative youth of the average adult convict. In the census, this was said to be 30 years and 3 months : the report of the Commissioner of Labor makes it thirty years and six months. Or, if the juvenile delinquents in reformatory institutions are included in the computation, it does not exceed 26 years and 1 month. Much more than one third of the prisoners of the United States are under 21 years of age ; more than one half of them are under 22 years ; more than two thirds of them are under 23 years.

We quite agree with Mr. Wright that it is of great importance to distinguish between the corrigible and the incorrigible offender, to punish the recidivist with increased severity, and to incarcerate certain persistent types of criminals for life. But, we insist with vehemence that the corrigible shall have a reformatory discipline provided for them while in prison, both for their sakes and our own ; that the heads of prisons shall be men who are capable of administering such a discipline ; and that they shall not be hindered in its application to individuals. What ! shall this mass of children and young men be doomed to a life of crime by the action of the government, and no chance afforded them to escape from it ?

HABITUAL CRIMINALS—THE OHIO LAW.

The following is the text of the Ohio habitual criminals act of 1885 :

> Every person who, after having been twice convicted, sentenced, and imprisoned in some penal institution for felony, whether committed heretofore or hereafter, and whether committed in this State or elsewhere within the limits of the United States of America, shall be convicted, sentenced, and imprisoned in the Ohio Penitentiary for felony hereafter committed, shall be deemed and taken to be an habitual criminal, and, on the expiration of the term for which he shall be so sentenced, he shall not be discharged from imprisonment in the penitentiary, but shall be detained therein for and during his natural life, unless pardoned by the governor, and the liability to be so detained shall be and constitute a part of every sentence to imprisonment in the penitentiary ; provided, however, that after the expiration of the term for which he was so sentenced, he may, in the discretion of the board of managers, be allowed to go upon parole outside of the buildings and enclosures, but to remain while on parole in the legal custody and under the control of said board, and subject at any time to be taken back within the enclosure of said institution ; and power is hereby conferred upon said board to establish rules and regulations under which such habitual criminals who are prisoners may go out upon parole ; and full power to enforce such rules and regulations, and to retake and reimprison any such convict so going out on parole, is hereby conferred upon said board, whose written order, certified by its secretary, shall be sufficient warrant to authorize any police officer to return to actual custody any such conditionally released or paroled prisoner ; and it is hereby made the duty of all chiefs of police and marshals of cities and villages, and the sheriffs of counties, and of all police officers and constables, to execute any such order in like manner as ordinary criminal process, and for the performance of such duty, the officer performing the same shall be paid by said managers, for his services, such reasonable compensation as is provided by law for similar services in other like cases.

THE MEANING OF THE KINDERGARTEN.

Froebel developed a perfect "manual training school." We will place in order his fundamental principles, that it may be seen how perfectly they accord with the truest manual or industrial methods.

Education is a growth from within, not a filling-up from without.

Place a child in the right conditions, and let him grow : the result will be education.

Learn the thought of God when he made the child.

There should be no difference in culture between a garden of plants and a garden of children. The plant springs up, grows to maturity, and dies. So does the child. The same conditions that will produce a perfect plant will, if applied to childhood, produce perfect men and women.

The woes and ills and diseases and troubles of the world come from want of education.

It is true that we suffer for our fathers' sins ; but right education will cure it in the end.

A child must be educated to adapt himself to his fellows. He must adjust himself, for and by himself, to his surroundings.—*Practical Teacher.*

THE RED FLOWER OF THE MADMAN.

By M. Garshine.

III.

"How do you feel?" the doctor asked him the next morning.

The sick man had just awakened. He was still resting under the bed-cover.

"Very well," he answered, rising.

He slipped his feet into his slippers, and took his dressing-gown.

"Perfectly well. Only one thing—here."

He touched the back of his neck.

"I can't move my neck without pain. But that is a trifle. Every thing is all right when one understands, and I understand."

"Do you know where you are?"

"I 'm in a mad-house. But when you can reason about such things, you feel perfectly indifferent, perfectly indifferent!"

The doctor gave his eyes close attention. His handsome rosy face, fringed with a carefully kept beard, and its two gentle blue eyes shining behind gold-rimmed spectacles, was absolutely calm. He examined his patient.

"Why do you look at me like that? You cannot read my soul," continued the sick man, "while I can read yours clearly. Why do you do evil? Why have you imprisoned these unfortunate creatures here, and refuse to give them their liberty? To what purpose are all these torments? A man possessed by a grand idea, an idea inspired by genius—ah, well! such a man is entirely indifferent to the surroundings in which he lives and to what he experiences—even to the sensation of being and of not being. Is it not so?"

"It is possible," answered the physician, establishing himself on a chair in a corner in order better to observe the sick man, who was walking up and down the cell so fast that his calfskin slippers, a size or two too large, flapped with a clatter on the pavement, and the skirts of his dressing-gown, with its red stripes and clusters of big flowers, blew to right and left. The surgeon and the nurse, who accompanied the doctor, remained at the door, immovable and straight as ramrods.

"My soul, my soul, has been possessed by an inspired idea, too!" cried the patient. "And from the moment that I became aware of it, I have felt like one born anew. The sensitiveness of my nerves has become so acute, my brain works more than ever. Formerly I used to arrive at a knowledge of things by syllogisms and hypothesis; now it is simply by intuition. And, really, I have attained to that at which philosophy aims, that which it has striven after for so long. I have come to comprehend this grand thought—that space and time are merely figments. I live in eternity. I live without space—everywhere and nowhere, whichever you please. Therefore it is indifferent to me whether you detain me here or give me my liberty, whether I am free or imprisoned. But I am not alone in this house. Many people share my lot. For them such a state of things is horrible. Why do you not give them their liberty? What good does this do any one?"

"You said," interrupted the physician, "that you lived outside of time and space. You will agree, however, that at the moment we are in this room; that it is"—here the doctor drew his watch—"that it is half-past ten, and the 6th of May, 18—. What do you say to that?"

"Nothing. When or where I live is indifferent to me. That is to say, I am eternal and everywhere."

The doctor smiled.

"Droll logic," said he, rising. "Still, you are right. Good-bye. Would you like a cigar?"

"With pleasure, thanks."

He stopped, took the cigar, and bit off the end of it nervously.

"That requires reflection, and much reflection," he said. "This is the world, the microcosm. One extremity encloses the bases and the other the acids. This is also the pivotal point of the universe, where the most opposite principles neutralize each other. Good-bye, doctor."

The physician withdrew. The patients stood at the ends of their beds and waited for him. No superior enjoys so high an esteem and respect as the psychologist in the presence of his patients.

As to our patient, he continued to walk up and down his chamber. They brought him tea. He swallowed standing, at two draughts, the contents of a big cup, and a large piece of bread in a few mouthfuls. Thereupon he left the cell, and for several hours, without an instant's pause, kept running through the entire house.

The day was rainy. The patients did not go into the garden. When the surgeon saught his patient he was pointed out to him at the end of the corridor. He was standing before the door leading to the garden, his face pressed against the glass, and he was looking fixedly at a patch of green. His attention was wholly concentrated on a flower of a strange burning-red color—a kind of wild poppy.

"You are going to be weighed," said the surgeon.

The madman turned around. His questioner started violently, and recoiled with fear, so terrible were the madman's eyes with hatred, so sparkling with savage rage. But when he noticed the surgeon his expression changed suddenly. He followed him quite docilely, without a word of revolt, and as though absorbed in a reverie.

They entered the doctor's cabinet, where the patient placed himself upon the platform. He was weighed, and the surgeon inscribed in the register "one hundred and nine pounds." The next day his weight was one hundred and seven; the day after one hundred and six.

"If this continues he won't last long," said the doctor.

He prescribed for him the strongest kind of nourishment. But in spite of that, and although the sick man had an excellent appetite, he grew thinner every day. He did not sleep any more, and was morning and evening in a state of feverish delirium.

IV.

He knew that he was in an insane asylum. He knew that he was mad. Sometimes after a feverish day he would wake during the night with weary limbs and a horrible headache, but entirely rational. Perhaps it was the lack of impressions during the darkness and nocturnal silence; perhaps it was the too great feebleness of his brain, the absence of the restless creatures by whom he was surrounded, that occasioned such moments, during which he comprehended his condition and became lucid.

But the morning would come, and from the dawn, when the house was again in commotion, the strange and weird sensations crowded upon him. His diseased brain did not have the power to master them, and madness resumed its sway. His case presented a curious mixture of rational and insane ideas. He knew that he was in the midst of madmen. All the time, while knowing it, he saw in each of them a being—some one who was in hiding, or who had been kidnapped—some one whose name he had known formerly, whose name he had read, or heard spoken. There were there the living and the dead. The establishment seemed to him filled with people of all times and all countries. There were to be met with illustrious personages, celebrities, soldiers fallen in the last war, people that had been hanged and resuscitated. He believed himself in an enchanted circle, a mysterious place, that contained in itself alone the power of the entire universe; and he himself (very proud of it) imagined that he was the centre of this circle.

All his companions in misfortune had combined for the accomplishment of a great work, of a thing that he considered an important and inspired undertaking—the annihilation forever of evil on the earth. He did not know in what this undertaking consisted, but he felt in himself a tremendous force to accomplish it. He could read the thoughts of others. When he looked at objects he knew their history. The great elms in the garden related to him the events of former times. He took the hospital, which, it is true, dated many years back, for a construction of Peter the Great, and he was sure the Czar had inhabited it at the time of the battle of Pultowa. He read all this on the wall, on the stucco falling in dust, in the fragments of brick, on the stones in the garden. The history of the establishment was engraven, from one end to the other, on these scattered objects.

He peopled the little house that served as a morgue with hundreds of dead men, dead for many years, and scrutinized the narrow skylight of the vault in a corner of the garden with unwearied attention. He saw, in the vague light projected through the dust-stained windows, well-known faces of men he had seen, or whose portraits he had contemplated.

However, fine weather, with its genial warmth, returned. The patients passed the whole day in the open air. The little umbrageous place that was their favorite haunt was literally covered with flowers. All who were able worked under the surveillance of an attendant. From morning to evening they weeded the walks and carpeted them with fine sand, spaded the beds, and watered the plants, cucumbers, and melons that they had sown themselves.

One corner of the garden was all in leaf with cherry trees. Here began an avenue lined with elms. An artificial mound in the middle was adorned with an immense bed of beautiful flowers of brilliant and varied colors, over which towered a cluster of rare tulips. The tulips formed the centre of the garden, and many of the patients attributed to them a peculiar and mysterious significance. The walks were lined with pretty shrubs and plants. There all the flowers that are to be found in Little Russia teemed: tall and brilliant geraniums, bright petunias with delicate petals, big tobacco plants with pale leaves and little pink flowers, curled mint, amaranths, cresses, and poppies. Not far from the stairway three wild poppy plants, of a curious species, grew. Their flowers were very small, and were distinguished by their fire-red color and extremely vivid lustre. They looked like tufts of glowing embers. These were the flowers that our patient observed from the first day of his arrival at the asylum, when he looked into the garden through the glass door.

When he entered the garden for the first time he contemplated, for a long time, before descending the stairs, the wild poppies with their dazzling red petals. There were only two flowers, separated by a considerable space. The place, not having been yet weeded, had been invaded by a thick covering of wild grass and by a swarm of white-fringed daisies.

The patients passed through the door, one by one, near which one of the keepers stood, who handed to each of them a knit cotton cap, pointed at the top, with a red cross in front. The madman immediately attributed a mystic significance to the cross. He took the cap off, and looked at the cross which adorned it. Then he gazed at the poppy; its flowers were of a much more vivid scarlet.

"That is what bears it," he murmured, "only for us two."

And he descended the stairs.

He walked through the grounds, without having been noticed by the keeper, standing behind him, and stretched his hand toward the flower Yet he could not make up his mind to pluck it.

All at once he felt, in his extended hand, painful, burning pricklings, which spread from his arm through his entire body. A magnetic fluid of unheard-of power emanated from that red flower, and invaded his whole organism. He stooped lower; his fingers almost touched the flower. But it defended itself; it resisted, vomiting, as it seemed to him, blasts of fetid odor charged with poison. He turned his head aside, and made a last effort to seize it. Already he held the stem pressed between his fingers, when a heavy hand came down upon his shoulder. It was the hand of the keeper.

"Must n't pluck it!" said the old Sokal, "and you must n't walk in the flower-beds. For if many of you had that fancy it would n't be long before every flower in the garden would be gone."

He added the last sentence in a persuasive tone, without taking his hand from the patient's shoulder.

The sick man looked in his face, freed himself from his hold without a word, and began to walk up and down the garden in great agitation.

"O you unfortunates!" he thought. "You see nothing. You are so blind, that you defend it! But, at all costs, I shall reach it! If not to-day, to-morrow. We shall measure our strength with one another. And even if I must die for it—well! what matter?"

He walked in the garden until evening, making many acquaintances and pronouncing strange discourses, which were taken by those with whom he spoke as answers to their own lucubrations—these lucubrations in turn being considered by our madman as mysterious revelations of the highest importance. The sick man walked now with one, now with another, of his companions in misfortune, and, when evening came, he had reached the perfect conviction that "all was ready," as he repeated to himself in a low voice. Soon, yes, soon the iron bars would fall in fragments; the prisoners would quit the place, to spread themselves over all the countries of the world. The earth would tremble, would be despoiled of her ancient garment, to be re-clothed resplendently in new and youthful beauty.

He had hardly thought any more of the flower; but, when he was preparing to mount the stairs, he perceived on the sward, heavy with large pearls of dew, two burning ambers of a vivid red. Then he lingered in the rear, letting all the other patients pass before him, hiding behind the keeper, and watching a favorable opportunity. No one saw him cross the flower-bed, pluck the flower, and hide it in his bosom under his shirt. When its moist and cool petals touched his skin, a mortal pallor covered his face, and he opened his eyes, all big with horror, while an icy perspiration pearled his forehead.

They were lighting the lamps in the asylum. The patients, for the most part, stretched themselves on their beds, waiting for supper, while a few uneasy madmen walked feverishly through the corridors and halls. Our patient, with his flower, was among the last. He crossed his hands convulsively on his breast. He seemed to wish to smother that flower and to crush it. When he met one of his comrades, he sprang from him with a bound, fearing to touch him with his garments.

"Don't come near me! Don't come near me!" he cried.

But it was in an insane asylum, where words like these are considered of no importance. He walked more and more rapidly, with automatic steps. He walked for one hour, two hours, lost in a sombre fury.

"I shall destroy you! I shall smother you!" said he, in a hoarse voice and with mad gesticulations.

From time to time he ground his teeth terribly.

Supper had been served in the dining-hall. On the great bare tables were arranged big bowls of yellow wood, with red figures traced on them, filled with thin vegetable soup. The patients took their places on the benches, and each received a round loaf of coarse bread. About eight ate from the same bowl, from which they helped themselves with wooden spoons. Those for whom more nourishing food had been ordered ate apart. Our madman, who had swallowed quickly the portion brought to him in his cell by the keeper, had descended, still ravenous, into the common hall. He tramped about, here and there, apparently much discontented.

"Will you permit me to take a seat here?" he asked the inspector.

"Have n't you had your supper yet?" this official asked, busily engaged filling fresh bowls with lentils.

"The fact is, I am literally dying of hunger. I need a great deal of nourishment. That is the only thing that sustains me. You know I cannot sleep, even for a minute."

"Eat, my friend, and much good may it do you. Taras, bring him a bowl and some bread."

He seated himself near one of the dishes, and swallowed a great quantity of soup.

"Enough, now, enough," said the inspector at last, when all the patients had left the table, and our madman remained alone, still helping himself eagerly out of the bowl, holding the spoon with one hand, and the other pressed convulsively against his breast. "You will make yourself sick."

"Ah, if you knew how much strength I need, and what strength! Good-bye, Nicholas Nicolaewitch," said the unfortunate, rising from his seat and pressing the hand of the inspector. "Good-bye!"

"Where are you going, pray?" asked the inspector, smiling.

"I? Nowhere. I shall stay here. It is possible, however, that we may not see each other to-morrow. I thank you for the great kindness you have shown me."

He pressed the hand of the inspector a second time forcibly. His voice trembled, and big tears stood in his eyes.

"Calm yourself, my dear friend. Do not disquiet yourself," replied the inspector. "What good do all these sad repinings do? Go to bed, and have a good sleep. You ought to sleep more. If you sleep you will soon be cured."

The poor wretch began to sob. The inspector turned around and ordered the table to be cleared. A half hour later all were asleep in the house except one, who lay stretched on his bed, with his clothes on. He trembled, as though in the grip of a fierce fever, with his hand pressed strongly to his breast, where he seemed to feel the embrace of poisoned flames running in fiery undulations.—From *The Cosmopolitan.*

(*To be concluded in our next.*)

ALT-SCHERBITZ.

A few miles from Leipzig is the asylum of Alt-Scherbitz, which to me seems in the van of all on the cottage or village plan. It is a newer, cleaner, more modern and perfect Gheel. Those who like the cottage system for asylums for the insane will find here their *beau-idéal.*

The government purchased a farm of some three hundred hectares of land, with all the buildings—an old *Rittergut.* Eight two-story villas were then built, quite near together, separated by hedges, and each having its own little garden. The central one of these is the administration building, about which are grouped the other seven villas for the newly admitted, for the noisy, for the sick, and for the cases requiring watching, of each sex.

Past this group of cottages winds a highway, on the opposite side of which are the kitchen, laundry, and dairy, with which dormitories are conveniently connected for the female patients who are here employed. Near these are the stables and granaries. All of these buildings separate two elevated sites, upon which stand handsome two-story villas, pleasantly grouped, of different architecture, commanding pretty views of the Elster river, flowing in its broad, fertile valley—three for women on one side, and four for men on the opposite. Each of these accommodate twenty-five patients, and they cost on average eighteen thousand marks ($4,500).

Close at hand is the farm hamlet, ten of whose houses are occupied by patients. There are two to eight patients in each, and they have their own keys, and take every care of their dwellings themselves.

In addition to those already described, there is one large building which accommodates a great number of chronic quiet women.

The greater part of the food is drawn to all of the houses in a wagon constructed for the purpose. The heating is by porcelain stoves. Everywhere bedrooms and dormitories are up-stairs, the day-rooms below.

The disposal of sewage is simple and apparently efficacious. Two men with a wagon are employed all day, visiting every building twice daily, to remove the closed receiving-tubs under the water closets and empty them far out on the farm.

Farming is, of course, the chief employment. But there are blacksmith, shoe, and carpenter shops, and, not the least interesting feature, a brick-yard. The last has proved so useful that it is to be enlarged. They have not only made all their own brick and tiles, but they sell large quantities. All the occupations common to other institutions of the kind, are in vogue here. There is a large theatre in a separate building, where dramatic entertainments, concerts, dances, etc., are given, joined in by both sexes. A bowling-alley is, of course, to be found here, as in most German asylums. In the Elster river, which is a small stream from six to twelve feet deep, a swimming-bath has been constructed.

The freedom of the patients is very great; and there is no depressing aspect about the colony at all—nothing to constantly remind outsiders and insiders of the usual coercive nature of such institutions. All of the villas, both for men and women, and all of the dormitories connected with the dairy, the laundry, the kitchen, the workshops, and all of the houses of the little hamlet, have unlocked doors and unguarded windows. There are no bars on any windows in the whole establishment. The freedom is, of course, less, the watching greater, in the group of buildings for new, dangerous, suicidal, and disturbed classes. The number of nurses in proportion to patients is in the ratio of one to ten. They live with the patients and sleep in the dormitories with them. Doors and windows are locked at night. In the few cells for isolating acute maniacs, there are inside blinds for darkening the rooms.

There are no regular night-watches employed; but in the reception building for each sex the day-nurses take turns watching at night, one from 7 o'clock, P.M., until midnight, and another from midnight until 5 o'clock, A.M., for which they receive extra pay.

On the day of my visit there were five hundred and thirty patients.

DR. FREDERICK PETERSON.

It is a distinct hardship when asylums are built in such remote districts that the patients are deprived of visits from their relatives. I am more and more convinced, as my experience extends, of the value of such visits in many cases of insanity. To be left without the sight of a relative or friend, without a cheering word from home, in an asylum among strangers, is enough to make a desponding patient more desponding; a patient tending to dementia more ready to lose interest in all mundane matters. I strongly advise frequent visits to such cases, as I believe they will benefit by them. I also advise such friends as can afford it to send occasionally the special local paper which interests their relative; for even though our supply is a good one, patients prize getting a paper for themselves.—DR. CAMPBELL (Westmoreland).

SPECIAL JOURNALISM.

We publish a partial list of periodicals printed in the interest of charitable and benevolent work, or of the classes for whom such work is undertaken, now issued in the United States. We would be obliged for the names of any papers or magazines which belong here, but have been omitted.

American Journal of Insanity, Utica, New York. Quarterly, $5.00 a year. Established in 1845. Printed at the New York State Lunatic Asylum ; official organ of the Association of Medical Superintendents of Institutions for the Insane.

American Annals of the Deaf, Washington, D. C. Quarterly, $2.00. Established in 1856. Published under the direction of the executive committee of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

Budget, Boston. Monthly. Established in 1886. Printed by the boys at the House of Reformation, Deer Island.

Child and State, San Francisco, Cal. Quarterly, 50 cents. Established 1885. Published in the interest of the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society.

Children's Home Monthly Record, Cincinnati, O. Monthly, 75 cents. Established in 1870. Published in the interest of the Children's Home.

Deaf-Mute Advance, Jacksonville, Ill. Weekly. $1.00. Established in 1870. Frank Read, editor and proprietor, Printed at the Illinois Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.

Deaf-Mute Index, Colorado Springs, Col. Weekly, 75 cents. Established in 1874. Issued by the Colorado Institute for the Education of the Mute and Blind.

Deaf-Mute Mirror, Flint, Mich. Weekly, 75 cents. Established in 1875. Entirely the work of the pupils of the Michigan Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.

Deaf-Mute Optic, Little Rock, Ark. Fortnightly, $1.00. Established in 1882. Published at the Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute.

Detective, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1885. Devoted to the interests of police and detective work, with incidental reference to prisons and prisoners.

Faith's Record, Chicago, Ill. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1870. Published in the interest of the Foundlings' Home.

Friend, P. O. box 3470, New York City. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1886. A philanthropic journal, largely devoted to city mission work ; advocates the principles of the Peace Society ; makes a specialty of work for the Chinese.

Good Samaritan, Dallas, Texas. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1884. Published in the interest of the Buckner Orphans' Home.

Helping Hands, Huntingdon, Pa. Quarterly, 50 cents, with monthly supplement without extra charge. Established in 1882. Published in the interest of the Homes for Orphan and Friendless Children at Huntingdon, Pa., and Hagerstown, Md.

Home Visitor, Chicago, Ill. Monthly, 60 cents. Established in 1859. Published in the interest of the Home for the Friendless.

Hospital Review, Newark, N. J.

Hospital Review, Rochester, N. Y. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1864.

Howard Times, Howard, R. I. Twice a month, 25 cents. Established in 1885. Published at the Sockanosset School for Boys.

Humane Educator, Cincinnati, O. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1884. Published by the Ohio State Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and Animals.

Humane Journal, Chicago, Ill. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1873. Published in the interest of the Illinois Humane Society.

Industrial School Advocate, Rochester, N. Y. Monthly, 62 cents. Established in 1865. Published in the interest of the Industrial School.

International Record of Charities and Correction, New York and London. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1886. Edited by the Rev. Fred. H. Wines, of Springfield, Ill., and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, New York. Monthly, $5.00. Established in 1874. A purely medical journal, specially related to the Neurological Societies of New York and Philadelphia.

Kentucky Deaf-Mute, Danville, Ky. Semi-monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1875. Printed by the pupils of the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.

Lend a Hand, Boston. Monthly, $2.00. Established in 1886. A monthly journal of philanthropy, edited by the Rev. E. E. Hale, and published by the Lend-a-Hand Company.

Little Wanderers' Quarterly Advocate, Boston. Quarterly. Established in 1867. Published in the interest of the Little Wanderers' Home.

Maryland Bulletin, Frederick, Md. Fortnightly, 50 cents. Established in 1881. Printed by the pupils of the Maryland School for the Deaf.

Medico-Legal Journal, New York. Monthly, $3.00. Established in 1883. Published under the auspices of the Medico-Legal Society of New York.

Monthly Bulletin of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York.. Issued monthly, from October to June, inclusive. A confidential communication to members and constituents of the society exclusively.

Monthly Record of the Five Points House of Industry, New York. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1857. Published in the interest of the House of Industry.

Monthly Register of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1879. Specially devoted to the promotion of charity organization in cities.

Mute's Companion, Faribault, Minn. Fortnightly, 50 cents. Established in 1876. Published by the pupils of the Minnesota School for the Deaf.

Nebraska Mute Journal, Omaha, Neb. Twice a month, 75 cents. Established in 1874. Published by the Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.

New Method for the Deaf, Englewood, Ill. Monthly. Established in 1884. Published in the interest of Miss McCowan's Voice and Hearing School for the Deaf.

Orphanage Record, Providence, R. I.

Orphan's Friend, Boston (Roxbury Station). Quarterly, 25 cents. Established in 1884. Devoted to the interests of the orphan and destitute boys in the House of the Angel Guardian.

Our Dumb Animals, Boston. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1868.

Our Monthly, Clinton, S. C. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1864. Published in the interest of the Thornwell Orphanage.

Our Paper, Warnerville, Mass. Weekly. Established in 1885. Published at the Massachusetts State Reformatory, for the information and use of the inmates.

Our Record, Buffalo, N. Y. Weekly, 50 cents. Established in 1869.

Philanthropic Index and Review, Kalamazoo, Mich. Monthly, 50 cents. Published in the interest of feeble-minded children.

Philanthropist, New York. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1886. For the promotion of social purity, the better protection of the young, the suppression of vice, and the prevention of its regulation by the State. Aaron M. Powell, editor.

Record and Appeal, Evanston, Ill. Monthly, 60 cents. Established in 1884. Published in the interest of the Illinois Industrial School for Girls.

Reform School Notes, Kearney, Neb. Monthly. Established in 1886. Published by the officers of the Nebraska State Reform School.

Refuge Journal, Chicago, Ill. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1886. Published in the interest of the Erring Women's Refuge.

Reporter of Organized Charity, Chicago, Ill. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1887. Published by the Chicago Charity Organization Society.

Saint Johnland, St. Johnland, N. Y. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1886. Published in the interest of the Church Industrial Community of St. Johnland, and printed at the Muhlenberg Press by the boys of that community.

Sheltering Arms, New York. Monthly, $1.00. Established in 1886. A Protestant Episcopal church charity paper.

Summary, Elmira, N. Y. Weekly, 50 cents. Established in 1883. Published at the New York State Reformatory for the information and use of the inmates.

Voice from the Old Brewery, New York. Monthly, 25 cents. Established in 1861.

Washingtonian, Chicago, Ill. Monthly, 50 cents. Established in 1875. Published in the interest of the Washingtonian Home.

Wisconsin Deaf-Mute Times, Delevan, Wis. Weekly, 75 cents. Established in 1879. Printed and published by the pupils of the Wisconsin School for the Deaf.

Marshall, Miss., boasts of a baby eleven months old that whistles. Battle Creek has got a baby boy three years old that spends all his pennies for cigars, and has been known to smoke five in one day. He will steal a pipe and beg passers for smoking tobacco. The boy has a perfect mania for tobacco, that developed itself before he could talk, when the youngster would crawl up to his father's clothes and steal cigars out of his pockets to smoke. He wears dresses, and is small for his age.—*Ex.*